1 ***LabGym*: quantification of user-defined animal behaviors using learning-based holistic**

2 **assessment**

5 Yujia Hu[1,*], Carrie R. Ferrario[2], Anjesh Ghimire[3], Brendon Watson[3], Kenichi Iwasaki[1], Hope

6 White[1], Yitao Xi[1], Jie Zhou[4,*], Bing Ye[1,*]

7
8

[1] Life Sciences Institute and Department of Cell and Developmental Biology, University of

Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA

[2] Department of Pharmacology and Psychology Department (Biopsychology), University of

Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA

[3] Department of Psychiatry, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA

[4] Department of Computer Science, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, IL 60115, USA

15
16

17 * Correspondence: Yujia Hu (henryhu@umich.edu), Jie Zhou (jzhou@niu.edu) and Bing Ye

18 (bingye@umich.edu)

ABSTRACT

Quantifying animal behavior is important for many branches of biological research. Current

computational tools for quantifying behaviors typically rely on a few pre-defined, simplified

features to identify a behavior. However, such an approach underuses the behavioral

information and restricts the tool's applicability to limited behavior types or animal species. Here

we report a new tool, *LabGym*, for quantifying animal behaviors without such limitations.

Combining a novel approach for effective evaluation of animal motion with customizable

convolutional recurrent networks for capturing spatiotemporal details, *LabGym* provides holistic

behavioral assessment and accurately identify user-defined animal behaviors without

restrictions on behavior types or animal species. It then calculates various parameters to

provide quantitative measurements of the intensity and dynamics of each behavior. *LabGym*

requires neither any intermediate step that causes information loss nor programming knowledge

from users for post-hoc analysis. It tracks multiple animals simultaneously in various

experimental settings for high-throughput and versatile analysis, and provides users a way to

generate visualizable behavioral datasets that are valuable resources for research in

neuroscience, behavioral science, and computer science. We demonstrate its efficacy in

capturing subtle behavioral changes in animals ranging from soft-bodied invertebrates to

mammals.

INTRODUCTION

Quantitative measurements of animal behavior are important for many branches of biology and

biomedical research (Altimus et al., 2020; Datta et al., 2019; Egnor and Branson, 2016; Pereira

et al., 2020). Identifying a behavior is a prerequisite to quantifying it. Current computational tools

for behavioral quantification typically rely on tracking a set of pre-defined, simplified features to

identify a behavior (Berman et al., 2014; Dankert et al., 2009; Denisov et al., 2013; Hsu and

Yttri, 2021; Kabra et al., 2013; Klibaite et al., 2017; Klibaite and Shaevitz, 2020; Nilsson et al.,

2020; Pereira et al., 2019; Segalin et al., 2020; Wiltschko et al., 2015). For example, JAABA

(Kabra *et al.*, 2013) uses pre-defined features that are derived from the animals' outlines, such

as instantaneous speed, positions, and areas, for identifying a set of behaviors in mice and flies.

Similarly, B-SOiD (Hsu and Yttri, 2021) utilizes mouse body part positions computed by

DeepLabCut (Mathis et al., 2018) to generate speed, angles, and body lengths for identifying

behaviors in rodents. MotionMapper uses postural features that are decomposed from raw

images of moving *Drosophila* adults to identify behaviors in low-dimensional space (Berman *et*

al., 2014). In *Drosophila* larvae, SALAM/LARA evaluates several specific contour features for

behavior detection (Denisov *et al.*, 2013).

While tools that tracks pre-defined, simplified features have greatly advanced behavioral

analyses, they have limitations. Firstly, the features need to be defined *a priori* to fit certain

behavior types, which may fail to identify other types of behavior. For example, moving speed

can be used to identify locomotion but is useless for distinguishing facial grooming from body

grooming during which the animal is immobile. In fact, animals can develop new behavior types

under new experimental manipulation, such as drug exposure (Ellinwood and Balster, 1974;

Ferrario et al., 2005). Moreover, the same behavior may be recorded from different

perspectives. A feature that is pre-defined for side view might not work for top view at all.

Secondly, the feature-based approaches assume that only the features selected by the designer

are key to identifying a given behavior. Nevertheless, the limited number of selected features

typically underrepresent the complete information needed to capture the complexity of animal

behaviors. Thirdly, a feature is typically a simplified summary of one aspect of the behavior.

Although such summary represents the designer's insights into the behavior and is often useful

for behavioral quantifications, information loss might occur in processing the feature, which

makes the behavior identification less accurate. For example, speed derived from the distance

of two centers of mass is often used as a feature for behavior identification. However, animals

are not dots in space and the information of animal body shape is lost during such simplification.

Finally, dimension reduction operations such as principle component analysis (PCA) (Pearson,

1901) or t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-NSE) (van der Maaten and Hinton,

2008) are often used in feature-based tools for behavior clustering, which causes even more

information loss.

Recent advancements in deep learning (LeCun et al., 2015; Schmidhuber, 2015) offer

the possibility to analyze animal behaviors without using pre-defined, simplified features. For

example, DeepLabCut and LEAP use deep convolutional neural networks (Fukushima, 1980;

LeCun and Bengio, 1995) to enable accurate tracking of animal body parts for pose estimation

(Mathis *et al.*, 2018; Pereira *et al.*, 2019). However, these tracking algorithms do not identify

behaviors. The positional information of body parts they output is disassociated from behaviors.

As a result, additional post-hoc analyses are required for behavior identification when using

these tools. Moreover, the body part positions are only a part of the complete behavioral

information, and the features they form might not capture the complexity of behavior. A recent

deep-learning-based tool called DeepEthogram classifies behaviors by analyzing raw frames in

a video (Bohnslav et al., 2021). However, this tool does not provide quantitative measurements

of the behaviors (e.g., intensity and dynamics), which are key to behavioral analysis. Moreover,

DeepEthogram cannot be applied in videos with multiple animals and is computationally

expensive.

In this paper, we report a new tool, *LabGym*, for quantifying user-defined animal

behaviors without restrictions on behavior types or animal species. People who analyze

behaviors in a video typically ignore the irrelevant background and only track the behaving

animals. They then evaluate and integrate spatiotemporal information with the animal's overall

movement pattern to categorize the behavior. Inspired by this human cognitive process, we

designed *LabGym* to ignore irrelevant background, track multiple animals, and categorize the

behavior accurately without using pre-defined, simplified features. It then uses the information

from the behavioral categories and the tracked animal foregrounds to calculate diverse

parameters for quantitative measurements of different aspects of each behavior. *LabGym* uses

a deep neural network with new design to holistically assess behavior. It first uses customizable

combinations of convolutional neural networks that are specialized at capturing spatial details

(Fukushima, 1980) and recurrent neural networks that are effective in capturing the temporal

connectivity (Rumelhart et al., 1986) to evaluate a behavior episode in a user-defined time

window. It then uses another convolutional neural network to evaluate a 'pattern image' that we

introduced, which is a 2-dimensional imprint of animal's overall movement pattern during the

episode. This approach ignores irrelevant background and only focuses on the whole body and

body parts of behaving animal and is much more efficient and accurate than current approaches for estimating motion flows using all pixels (Bohnslav *et al.*, 2021; Wu et al., 2020). Together with other technical improvements, including a new method for effective background subtraction that outperforms the state-of-art technologies, this new neural network made *LabGym* run easily on a common laptop computer while most current deep-learning-based tools for behavioral analysis require demanding computational capabilities (Bohnslav *et al.*, 2021; Mathis *et al.*, 2018).

Deep neural networks need to be trained on examples of ground truth (i.e., labeled data) to perform categorization, and the quality of the labeled data decides the categorization accuracy (LeCun *et al.*, 2015; Roh et al., 2021; Schmidhuber, 2015). Since the manual labeling might vary among individuals, benchmark datasets that can be visualized are needed for benchmarking the labeling to ensure accuracy and reproducibility. In fact, shared datasets with consensus labeling are also essential for benchmarking different algorithms, which can then facilitate the development of computational tools for behavioral analyses. However, such visualizable benchmark datasets for behaviors are largely missing due to lack of tools to generate them. *LabGym* remedies this by providing users with a way to generate visualizable, standard behavioral datasets that can be shared across the research community.

We demonstrate that *LabGym* precisely captures subtle changes in user-defined behaviors in animals ranging from soft-bodied invertebrates to mammals. We also used it to generate visualizable behavioral datasets in these species to serve as benchmarks for researchers in neuroscience, behavioral science, and computer science. These are "living" datasets that can be added to and modified across time. Finally, *LabGym* includes real-time visualizations of behavioral categorizations and a graphical user interface (GUI) containing flexible options for experimenters to use without the need of writing computer code.

RESULTS

The *LabGym* pipeline

LabGym (https://github.com/umyelab/LabGym) was designed to mimic human assessment of

animal behaviors. The goals for the software are to efficiently and accurately identify all the

user-defined behavioral types (i.e., "categories") for each animal in an experimental session,

and then provide quantitative measurements of each category.

To accomplish this, *LabGym* first uses a new method to effectively remove backgrounds

in each video frame and tracks each animal within the video (Figure 1A). At each frame of the

video, a module termed the 'Categorizer' determines which behavior an animal performs during

a time window that spans from the current frame back to a user-defined number of frames prior

('time window'). To achieve this, two types of data are extracted at each video frame for each

animal: a) a background-free animation ('animation') that spans the specified time window, and

b) the imprint of the positional changes of the animal's body over time in the animation ('pattern

image'; Figure 1B and Supplementary Video 1). These two pieces of data are then analyzed by

the Categorizer that comprises three submodules: the 'Animation Analyzer', the 'Pattern

Recognizer', and the 'Decision Maker' (Figure 1C). The Animation Analyzer analyzes all

spatiotemporal details in each animation, whereas the Pattern Recognizer evaluates the

animal's overall motion pattern in the paired pattern image (see details in "*Biologically plausible*

design of the Categorizer for holistic assessments"). The Decision Maker integrates the outputs

from the Animation Analyzer and Pattern Recognizer to determine the behavior category within

the specified time window.

Because it is based on deep neural networks, the Categorizer needs to be trained on

examples of ground truth (i.e., labeled data) for each behavior in order to conduct accurate

categorizations. To train the Categorizer, users only need to 'tell' the Categorizer the behavior

names of the training examples (animations and their paired pattern images; Figure 1B). To do

so, users can use *LabGym* to export unsorted examples, and manually sort each pair of

example into folders created under the behavior name (Figure 1D). Users then input these

folders into *LabGym* to generate a labeled dataset for training the Categorizer.

After the categorizations, the quantification module called the 'Quantifier' (Figure 1E)

uses information from the behavioral categories and the animal foregrounds to compute various

parameters for each behavior (e.g., duration, speed, etc.; Figure 1F). The output also includes

temporal raster plots of behavioral events (and their probabilities) and annotated videos for real-

time visualization of behavioral categorization.

Tracking multiple animals in various backgrounds for high-throughput and efficient

analyses

Behavioral experiments often involve behavior-irrelevant background—such as the enclosures

for holding the animals or changes in illumination during optogenetic manipulation—that renders

analyses inaccurate and inefficient. To address these issues, we designed a module in *LabGym*

that removes backgrounds but retains all the pixels representing the animals in each video

frame (i.e., foreground).

We reasoned that backgrounds in experimental conditions are often static, and that the

pixel value in each background location would be stable over time (Supplementary Figure 1A).

Therefore, we developed a method to find the stable value of each pixel in each video frame

and use these values to reconstruct the static background (Figure 2A and see **Methods**). The

static background is then subtracted from each frame to obtain the foreground, which

represents the animal (Figure 2B). Compared with two state-of-the-art background subtraction

methods, Local SVD Binary Pattern (LSBP) (Guo et al., 2016) and GSoC (Bradski, 2000)

(implemented in Google Summer of Code 2017), our stable-value detection method

reconstructed much cleaner backgrounds (with less traces of the animals) on behavioral videos

of multiple animals and in diverse experimental settings (Figure 2B and Supplementary Figure

1B).

The tracking of each animal over time is performed based on the assumption that the

Euclidean distance between the centers of the same animal in consecutive frames are always

the smallest among all Euclidean distances between each possible pair of animal centers. Each

tracked animal is assigned by a unique identity (ID) that links to a matrix for storing all

information about that animal over time.

Multiple animals in the same enclosure sometimes collide with each other, which can

cause tracking errors. To make the analysis fully automatic, the current version of *LabGym*

excludes animals from tracking if users choose not to allow animal body entanglements (Figure

2C, Supplementary Videos 2 and **Methods**). This ensures that the analysis is only performed on

reliably tracked individual animals. If body entanglements are allowed, *LabGym* can also

analyze social behaviors in which animals have body contact (Figure 2C, Supplementary Videos

3 and **Methods**). In this scenario, merged animals are analyzed as one.

Notably, animals are reliably tracked by *LabGym* even in videos with unstable or shifting

illuminations (Supplementary Video 4) because the changes in background illumination (e.g.,

during optogenetic stimulation) can be reconstructed separately.

Taken together, the effective background subtraction and reliable animal tracking in

LabGym make it applicable to a wide range of behavioral videos without the need for

specialized recording equipment.

Biologically plausible design of the Categorizer for holistic assessments

We built the Categorizer with three submodules: Animation Analyzer, Pattern Recognizer, and

Decision Maker (Figure 3 and **Methods**), each of which consists of neural networks that suit the

design goals. Importantly, the two subnetworks—the Animation Analyzer and the Pattern

Recognizer—were designed to analyze two types of behavioral information that complement

each other, which ensures accurate categorizations of behavior through holistic assessment.

Animal behavior involve changes in both spatial and temporal dimensions. To learn the

spatial details of the animal in each time point (frame) during a behavior, the Animation Analyzer

uses time-distributed convolutional layers to analyze raw pixel values that represent the animal

foreground in each frame of an animation (Figure 3A). To learn about how these frame-wise

spatial details are organized along the temporal axis, the Animation Analyzer then uses

recurrent layers to compute temporal connectivity among the frame-wise spatial details

analyzed by time-distributed convolutional layers.

In the Animation Analyzer, maximum pooling operations were used to enable

translational invariance (LeCun and Bengio, 1995), which eliminates the information of an

animals' location in each frame so that the Animation Analyzer can be trained to recognize the

animal regardless its location (e.g., left side vs. right side) in the frame. However, the

information of the animal's locational changes during the behavior, which is key to behavioral

categorizations, is also lost. To compensate this issue of the Animation Analyzer, we generated

a "pattern image" for each animation to depict the animal's overall movement and designed the

Pattern Recognizer (that comprises convolutional layers) to analyze the pattern image (Figure

3B). In each pattern image, the contours of both the whole body and the body parts of the

animal in each frame of the animation were superimposed with gradually changed colors to

indicate their temporal sequences. This shows the animal's overall movement pattern during the

animation in a single 2-dimensional image to allow for efficient analyses.

Finally, the Decision Maker uses concatenating layers to integrate the outputs from both

the Animation Analyzer and the Pattern Recognizer, and passes the integrated information to

fully-connected (dense) layers for discriminating behavioral categories (Figure 3C).

Users can choose to include background in the animations as it sometimes can be

useful for behavioral categorization. For example, bedding in a mouse's mouth can indicate nest

building and, thus, including the bedding in the animations can facilitate the categorization of

nest building behavior (Figure 4A). Users can also choose whether to show the animals' body

parts in the pattern images. Whole-body motion patterns are sometimes sufficient for

distinguishing behaviors like curling versus uncoiling in *Drosophila* larvae, wing extension

versus abdomen bending in adult flies, or walking versus rearing in rats (Figure 4B), while body

part motion patterns are key for distinguishing similar behaviors like facial grooming versus

sniffing, or ear grooming versus sitting in mice (Figure 4C).

The Categorizer accurately categorizes user-defined behaviors across species

Since the behavior types for the Categorizer to recognize are defined by users, rather than pre-

defined in the program, the Categorizer can identify behaviors without restrictions on behavioral

categories or animal species. To demonstrate this, we used *LabGym* to study relatively simple

behaviors in *Drosophila* larvae and behaviors of increasing complexity in rodents. We first used

LabGym to generate and label separate behavioral datasets for *Drosophila* larvae

(Supplementary Video 5), rats (Supplementary Video 6), and mice (Supplementary Video 7).

These datasets are publicly available (see **Methods**) and can evolve as anyone who works on

animal behaviors can check the labeling and add their data to expand and diversify them. The

larva dataset contains the fewest categories with sufficient examples to cover most behavioral

variants; the rat dataset contains more categories of more complicated behaviors that only show

subtle differences among each other; the mouse dataset contains even more categories of even

more complex behaviors. To test the robustness of *LabGym*, we also varied the amount of

training examples used to categorize a given behavior, ranging from ~100 to ~800 pairs of

animations and pattern images.

The Categorizer is customizable with different levels of complexity to address behaviors

of various complexity. Therefore, users can set and train the Categorizer for their own

behavioral datasets. To provide a reference for customizing the Categorizer, which is a trial-

and-error process, we trained several Categorizers with different complexity for each species,

and determined the most suitable ones based on their overall accuracy of behavioral

categorizations in training (Supplementary Table 1 and **Methods**). The selected Categorizer for

each dataset were named as *LarvaNociceptor_Topview_30fps* (*LarvaN*),

MouseHomecage_Sideview_30fps (*MouseH*) and *RatAddiction_Topview_30fps* (*RatA*). To test

the accuracy and generalizability of these three Categorizers, we assessed their precisions,

recalls (sensitivity), and F1 score (weighted precision and sensitivity, see **Methods**) of

behavioral categorizations in videos that were not used for generating the training or validation

dataset.

Complex deep neural networks such as ResNet50 (He et al., 2016), which have been

used in previous behavioral analysis tools (Bohnslav *et al.*, 2021; Mathis *et al.*, 2018), might not

be suitable for simple larval behaviors since these complex networks would learn too many

irrelevant details in simple datasets, resulting in reduced accuracy (i.e., overfitting). In contrast,

LarvaN with simple complexity (Supplementary Table 1) achieved 97% accuracy in frame-wise

categorizations of 6 different behaviors elicited by noxious stimuli (Figure 5A and

Supplementary Video 8).

Rats show complex behaviors and the differences among them can be extremely subtle

due to the recording or experimental conditions (Supplementary Video 6). Despite these

challenges, the *RatA* performed reliably well in frame-wise differentiation of visually similar

behaviors such as body grooming versus face grooming, or head swaying versus in place

(Figure 5B and Supplementary Video 9).

Animals can develop new behaviors when experimental conditions change. For

example, mice in a cage equipped with a wheel tend to run on the wheel. The movement of

running on the wheel has features and dynamics that are distinct from running across a flat

surface. Thus, wheel-running might not be correctly identified by tools in which running is a

predefined. Additionally, a camera placed at the side of a cage will result in at least two

viewpoints of the mouse at it moves in the cage, a side view and a front view, which can greatly

complicate the automated analysis of behavior. Despite these challenges, *MouseH* achieved

excellent accuracy in frame-wise categorization of 20 behavioral categories with as few as 79

training examples for some categories (Figure 5C and Supplementary Video 10). Although both

were used for categorizing rodent behaviors, *MouseH* trained on pattern images including the

body parts (Supplementary Videos 7) performed better than *RatA* trained on those excluding

body parts (Supplementary Videos 6; Figure 5B and 5C). This indicates that including the body

parts in pattern images can boost the learning efficiency of the Categorizer (Figure 4 and

Methods).

Due to the data-driven nature of deep learning, the accuracy and generalizability of the

Categorizer largely depend on the amount, diversity, and labeling accuracy of the training

examples. Therefore, the performance of the Categorizers can be continuously improved over

time with the accumulation of well-labeled training examples.

The Quantifier provides quantitative measurements that are sufficient for capturing subtle changes in diverse aspects of each behavior

The quantitative measurements of animal motion in existing tools typically rely on the animal tracking data itself. In contrast, since the behavioral categorization in *LabGym* is independent of the tracking data, the Quantifier in *LabGym* can use both the behavioral category output from the Categorizer and the spatial information of the tracked animals to calculate a wide range of parameters for each behavioral category. The current version of *LabGym* includes 14 parameters: acceleration/velocity reduction, angle, count, distance, duration, intensity (area), intensity (length), latency, magnitude (area), magnitude (length), speed (distance traveled per time unit), velocity (displacement per time unit), vigor (area) and vigor (length) (Figure 6 and **Methods**). Additional parameters can be added on demand.

To test how well the Quantifier performs in quantifying behaviors in diverse animal species, we applied *LabGym* to experiments in larvae, rats, and mice, in which the quantitative measurements of dynamics or intensity of the behaviors was difficult to achieve with previous methods.

Previous studies show that optogenetic inhibition of larval leucokinin (LK) neurons slightly impaired larval behaviors elicited by nociceptor activation (Hu et al., 2020). In these experiments, both the subtle changes in behaviors and the shifting illumination caused by optogenetic manipulations posed challenges for automatic behavioral analysis. We thus tested whether *LabGym* was able to capture the behavioral changes in these experiments (Supplementary Video 11). Compared with the control group, larvae in the LK inhibition group showed a modest reduction in the probability of body rolling behavior, which is a characteristic nociceptive response (Hwang et al., 2007; Tracey et al., 2003) (Figure 7A and 7B). No change was observed in the latency of the response onset after optogenetic stimulation of nociceptors (Figure 7C). Moreover, LK inhibition caused a slight yet significant reduction in rolling velocity (Figure 7D) and duration (Figure 7E). We also compared several quantitative measurements of different behaviors and found that the results indeed reflect the ethological meaning of these behaviors. For example, rolling achieves higher speed than crawling (Figure 7F), supporting the notion that rolling was a more efficient way than crawling to escape from harm (Hwang *et al.*, 2007; Tracey *et al.*, 2003). Similarly, despite their spatial similarity, curling was more vigorous than turning (Figure 7G), echoing the fact that larvae typically perform curling under noxious stimuli but tend to turn in in response to milder situation like gentle touch or exploration (Hwang *et al.*, 2007; Jovanic et al., 2016; Lahiri et al., 2011; Tracey *et al.*, 2003). Thus, *LabGym* is

sufficiently sensitive for detecting modest effects of in vivo neuronal inhibition on behavior, and it

does so on videos with shifting illumination.

When *Drosophila* larvae are exposed to sound, they display a startle response that is

characterized by the cessation of crawling ("freezing"), retraction of their heads ("hunching"),

and excessive turning movements (Zhang et al., 2013). To test whether *LabGym* could identify

the subtle differences in behaviors elicited by different intensities of sound, we trained another

Categorizer (*LarvaMechanosensor_TopView_30fps*) with examples of sound-elicited behaviors

in *Drosophila* larvae (Supplementary Videos 5) and used it for analysis (Supplementary Video

12). This Categorizer has the same complexity as *LarvaN*. Compared to larvae exposed to 80

decibel (dB) white noise, those exposed to 94 dB showed a similar hunching probability (Figure

7H and 7I), but the magnitude of head retraction during hunching was enhanced (Figure 7I).

Furthermore, larvae exposed to 94 dB showed more frequent turning (Figure 7K) and prolonged

freezing (i.e., immobility; Figure 7I), which resulted in significant reductions in crawling distance

(Figure 7M). However, when larvae froze, the reduction in the velocity of their movement was

similar between the two groups (Figure 7N). Thus, *LabGym* was able to capture quantitative

differences in the behaviors induced by auditory stimuli of different intensities.

It is well-established that drugs like amphetamine, produce dose-dependent increases in

"psychomotor activity", and that the intensity of these behaviors increases (i.e., sensitizes) with

repeated drug exposure (Ellinwood and Balster, 1974; Ferrario *et al.*, 2005). Psychomotor

activity in rats encompasses a wide range of behaviors that include rearing, hyper-locomotion,

and stereotyped, repetitive head movements (i.e., stereotypy). Psychomotor activity is most

often quantified using non-parametric rating scales based on clusters of behavioral features and

their intensities (Ellinwood and Balster, 1974; Ferrario *et al.*, 2005). To date, no automated

systems have been able to sufficiently categorize or quantify psychomotor activity beyond

locomotion or rearing (Ellinwood and Balster, 1974; Ferrario *et al.*, 2005).

LabGym automatically captured dose-dependent changes in key behavioral features of

psychomotor activity (Figure 8A and Supplementary Video 13). These include rearing (Figure

8B), locomotion (Figure 8C), and head movements (persistent head movements indicating

stereotypy; Figure 8D), following systemic amphetamine administration. Impressively, *LabGym*

even captured stereotypy interspersed with small bursts of locomotion—an indication of a strong

psychomotor response at high dose of amphetamine (e.g., Figure 8A and 8C, 5.6 mg/kg dose

group in amphetamine baseline group). *LabGym* also captured quantitative changes in these

behaviors during sensitization, in which repeated injection of amphetamine resulted in more

intense behavioral responses to the same dose of drug (Figure 8E-8H). In contrast, the intensity

of spontaneously occurring behaviors such as body/face grooming were stable across time in

rats treated with repeated saline (Figure 8I-8K).

When an animal ages, its ethogram might not change, yet the quantitative

measurements of its behaviors (e.g., running speed) may decline. The speed of a mouse

running on a wheel can be measured only by tracking the rotation of the wheel itself, which

poses a challenge for computational tools designed to only track animals. Nevertheless,

LabGym not only categorized the complete behaviors for both younger (32-week) and older

mice (80-week) in a cage with a running wheel (Figure 8L and Supplementary Video 14), but

also captured the decline in movement speed of the older versus the young mice by a

parameter (vigor_area) that summarizes the areal changes per unit time of the animal's body

(Figure 8M, 6 and **Methods**).

Taken together, these results demonstrate that the Quantifier reliably and precisely

captures quantitative changes in behaviors across species, and in a wide range of settings and

experimental conditions.

GUI with optional settings for user-friendly usage

To make *LabGym* applicable in various experimental settings and accessible to users without

requiring a software programming background, we implemented a GUI. This includes 4

functional units: Generate Datasets, Train Networks, Test Networks and Analyze Behaviors.

The Generate Datasets unit (Supplementary Figure 2) is for batch processing of videos

to generate visualizable behavioral data (animations and paired pattern images) that can be

used to establish benchmark datasets for training the neural networks. The Train Networks unit

(Supplementary Figure 3) is for preparing training datasets and training Categorizers at various

levels of complexity. The Test Networks unit (Supplementary Figure 4) is for testing the

accuracy and generalizability of a trained Categorizer in an unbiased manner. The Analyze

Behaviors unit (Supplementary Figure 5) is for batch-processing of videos for behavioral

analysis. It generates an annotated video (Supplementary Videos 8-14), a raster plot (Figure

7A, 7H, 8A and 8L) of behavioral events (displayed in user-defined colors) and their occurring

probabilities (by color intensities) for each animal in one batch of analysis, and an Excel/CSV

file containing individual behavioral parameters for each behavior of each animal.

Notably, the flexible options in *LabGym*, especially the customizable neural network

complexity, allows it to achieve fast processing speed in training networks and in analyzing

behaviors on commonly used laptops that do not have GPUs (Supplementary Table 2). This is

difficult to achieve for tools using fixed, complex neural networks (Bohnslav *et al.*, 2021; Mathis

et al., 2018).

DISCUSSION

LabGym is a unique computational tool that enables a generalizable solution to behavioral analysis. The flexibility and trainability of this tool allows it to be applied to very broad variety of species, behaviors and questions, and to be iteratively refined towards a particular set of conditions over time. This tool will open opportunities for automatic, high-throughput, targeted and customizable analyses of behaviors without the cost of commercial products, which will greatly facilitate the process of mechanistic discoveries in biological research. The standardized, visualizable behavioral datasets generated by *LabGym* will also benefit research in neuroscience, behavioral science, and computer science by helping to standardize procedures within and across research groups, and by providing long-term references for future studies to build on.

Holistic assessments minimize information loss and enhance generalizability

While tools that rely on pre-defined features are valuable, and have greatly advanced behavioral analyses in many fields (Berman *et al.*, 2014; Dankert *et al.*, 2009; Denisov *et al.*, 2013; Hsu and Yttri, 2021; Kabra *et al.*, 2013; Klibaite *et al.*, 2017; Klibaite and Shaevitz, 2020; Nilsson *et al.*, 2020; Segalin *et al.*, 2020; Wiltschko *et al.*, 2015), embedded in such approaches is an assumption that the unused or lost information is not important for identifying the behaviors. In contrast, *LabGym* uses a deep neural network with novel design to holistically assess both the complete spatiotemporal details and the overall motion pattern (as represented by the pattern images) of the animal during a behavior. In this way, *LabGym* acquires more complete behavioral information than feature-based tools when it identifies a behavior.

In feature-based tools, specific features such as the movement speed or body area need to be defined *a priori* to fit certain behaviors and might not be useful for other behaviors. For example, the movement speed can be a useful feature for detecting larval crawling but is useless for identifying larval turning that is defined by the bending of the body axis. In fact, different behaviors possess distinct features, and even more so for behaviors in different species. In addition, under certain experimental conditions, animals can develop new behaviors, which might not be identifiable with the pre-defined features. In contrast, *LabGym* does not rely on pre-defined features and thus works for behaviors without restrictions on behavior types or animal species.

The processing of features and the reduction of dimensions are typically indispensable steps in feature-based tools, which can cause significant information loss. *LabGym* does not

require intermediate steps of extracting features or reducing dimensions in recognizing a

behavior, which minimizes the information loss.

Deep-learning-based tools have greatly facilitated the behavioral analysis by enabling

the accurate tracking of animal postures (Mathis *et al.*, 2018; Pereira *et al.*, 2019). For example,

DeepLabCut (Mathis *et al.*, 2018) can be trained to precisely output the positions of user-

defined body parts overtime. However, there is still a gap between the positional information of

body parts and the behavior. Therefore, post-hoc algorithms such as BSOiD (Hsu and Yttri,

2021) are needed for behavior identification when using these tracking tools, which makes

these tools difficult to use to experimenters who are not experts in computation or programming.

Although BSOiD compensate lack of behavior identification in DeepLabCut to some extent, the

limited number of simplified features (speed, angles, and body lengths) it uses still do not

represent the complete behavioral information. In contrast, *LabGym* does not require post-hoc

analysis and the users do not need to be experts in computation or programming. Instead, users

only need to recognize and sort video examples of a given behavior to get the behavior

quantified.

Recently, DeepEthogram has been developed to use deep neural networks to assess

raw pixels of video frames for behavior classification (Bohnslav *et al.*, 2021), which do not rely

on pre-defined features. However, since it analyzes every pixel in a video frame and thus

cannot track the animal, the quantification of behavior, such as the measurements on the body

motion magnitude or speed during a behavior, is missing. Moreover, DeepEthogram can only

analyze videos that include single animals. Furthermore, the computation in DeepEthogram is

inefficient and expensive. It assesses all pixels of an entire video frame, even when generating

the optical flow of animal motion. In fact, the noise in the optical flows caused by irrelevant

background can be clearly visualized in DeepEthogram (Bohnslav *et al.*, 2021). It also uses the

complex, fixed ResNet (He *et al.*, 2016) structures, which might not work well for simple

behavior data such as larval behaviors and makes the training procedures complicated. In

contrast, *LabGym* provides diverse quantitative measurements for each user-defined behavior,

enabling the discoveries of subtle changes in the behavior. It ignores the irrelevant background

and only focus on the pixels representing the behaving animals, which is efficient and accurate.

It also analyzes multiple animals simultaneously, which is high throughput. Importantly, we

created a new approach for evaluating the animal's overall motion flows during a behavior.

Instead of using MotionNet to operate on all pixels for generating an optical flow, which was

used in DeepEthogram, we first generated a "pattern image" for each behavior episode to depict

the animal's overall movement. In each pattern image, the contours of both the whole body and

the body parts of the animal in each frame of the episode were superimposed with gradually

changed colors to indicate their temporal sequences. We then used convolutional neural

networks to evaluate the pattern image. In this way, the necessary information of the animals'

motion flow was clearly represented, making the assessment highly efficient and precise.

LabGym also provides several options of neural network complexity to combine, from two-layer

VGG-like (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014) structure to ResNet50 (He *et al.*, 2016), which

makes the analyses flexible to behaviors of different complexity and enables *LabGym* to be

easily run even on common laptops.

Generate benchmark behavioral datasets for the research community

In behavioral categorization based on deep learning approaches, the accuracy depends on the

quality of training datasets, which should be diverse and well labeled (LeCun *et al.*, 2015; Roh

et al., 2021; Schmidhuber, 2015). In the computer vision field, high-quality datasets, such as

ImageNet (Deng et al., 2009), have been established to facilitate the training of deep neural

networks and benchmarking different algorithms. In neuroscience, however, such benchmark

datasets for behaviors of model organisms are largely absent. A cause of this is the lack of tools

that can help researchers to generate standardized, visualizable behavioral datasets that are

easy to label and to share. Although transfer learning that applies acquired network weights to

new categorization problems can potentially be used to compensate for the lack of species-

specific behavioral datasets, its efficiency relies on the similarity between the existing datasets

used for pretraining the networks and the new data (Yosinski et al., 2014). Current tools using

transfer learning for behavioral categorizations (Bohnslav *et al.*, 2021) utilized network weights

that were acquired from human behavioral datasets such as Kinetics-700 (Carreira et al., 2019).

However, human behaviors are intrinsically different from the behaviors of model organisms,

especially the soft-bodied ones. Therefore, species-specific behavioral datasets are still in

critical demand for accurate behavioral categorizations in model organisms.

LabGym addresses the lack of such benchmark datasets by providing a way for users to

generate standardized, visualizable behavioral datasets that are easy to label or to benchmark

the labeling, which makes it convenient for different experts to check, discuss and reach

consensus on the labeling. Importantly, such expert-labeled behavioral datasets, if shared in the

research community, not only ensure the accurate and reproducible executions of

categorization criteria across different experimenters or trials, but also provide benchmarks for

comparing different algorithms or references for future studies to build on.

In summary, *LabGym* is a powerful and versatile computational tool for automatically

categorizing and quantifying animal behaviors without restrictions on behavior types or animal

species.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Drs. Daniel Leventhal, Hanchuan Peng, and Guoqiang Yu for helpful comments on

earlier versions of the manuscript. This research was supported by National Institutes of Health

(NIH) to B.Y. (R01NS104299 and R01EB028159). *Drosophila* Stocks from the Bloomington

Drosophila Stock Center (NIH P40OD018537) were used in this study. The content is solely the

responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Y.H. and B.Y. conceived the project. Y.H. designed and programmed *LabGym* with the

guidance of J.Z. and B.Y.. Y.H., K.I., H.W., C.R.F., A.G., and B.W. performed the behavioral

experiments on nociceptor-stimulation-elicited behaviors (Y.H.) and sound-elicited behaviors

(K.I. and H.W.) in *Drosophila* larvae, rats (C.R.F.), and mice (A.G. and B.W.). Y.H., K.I., H.W.,

and Y.X. generated and labelled the dataset for larval nociceptor-stimulation-elicited behaviors

(Y.H. and Y.X.), larval sound-elicited behaviors (K.I. and H.W.), rat behaviors (Y.H.), and mouse

behaviors (Y.H. and A.G.). Y.H. performed the computational analyses and the validation of

behavioral categorizations with the assistance from C.R.F., A.G., B.W., K.I., and H.W.. Y.H.,

C.R.F., B.W., J.Z., and B.Y. wrote the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

REFERENCES

Altimus, C.M., Marlin, B.J., Charalambakis, N.E., Colon-Rodriquez, A., Glover, E.J.,
Izbicki, P., Johnson, A., Lourenco, M.V., Makinson, R.A., McQuail, J., et al. (2020). The
Next 50 Years of Neuroscience. J Neurosci *40*, 101-106. 10.1523/Jneurosci.0744-
19.2019.

Berman, G.J., Choi, D.M., Bialek, W., and Shaevitz, J.W. (2014). Mapping the
stereotyped behaviour of freely moving fruit flies. J R Soc Interface *11*.
10.1098/rsif.2014.0672.

Bohnslav, J.P., Wimalasena, N.K., Clausing, K.J., Dai, Y.Y., Yarmolinsky, D.A., Cruz,
T., Kashlan, A.D., Chiappe, M.E., Orefice, L.L., Woolf, C.J., and Harvey, C.D. (2021).
DeepEthogram, a machine learning pipeline for supervised behavior classification from
raw pixels. Elife *10*. 10.7554/eLife.63377.

Bradski, G. (2000). The OpenCV library. Dr Dobbs J *25*, 120-+.

Carreira, J., Noland, E., Hillier, C., and Zisserman, A. (2019). A short note on the
kinetics-700 human action dataset. arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.06987.

Dankert, H., Wang, L.M., Hoopfer, E.D., Anderson, D.J., and Perona, P. (2009).
Automated monitoring and analysis of social behavior in Drosophila. Nat Methods *6*,
297-303. 10.1038/Nmeth.1310.

Datta, S.R., Anderson, D.J., Branson, K., Perona, P., and Leifer, A. (2019).
Computational Neuroethology: A Call to Action. Neuron *104*, 11-24.
10.1016/j.neuron.2019.09.038.

Deng, J., Dong, W., Socher, R., Li, L.J., Li, K., and Li, F.F. (2009). ImageNet: A Large-
Scale Hierarchical Image Database. Cvpr: 2009 Ieee Conference on Computer Vision
and Pattern Recognition, Vols 1-4, 248-255. DOI 10.1109/cvpr.2009.5206848.

Denisov, G., Ohyama, T., Jovanic, T., and Zlatic, M. (2013). Model-based Detection and
Analysis of Animal Behaviors using Signals Extracted by Automated Tracking. pp. 175-
181.

Egnor, S.E., and Branson, K. (2016). Computational Analysis of Behavior. Annu Rev
Neurosci *39*, 217-236. 10.1146/annurev-neuro-070815-013845.

Ellinwood, E.H., Jr., and Balster, R.L. (1974). Rating the behavioral effects of
amphetamine. Eur J Pharmacol *28*, 35-41. 10.1016/0014-2999(74)90109-5.

Ferrario, C.R., Gorny, G., Crombag, H.S., Li, Y.L., Kolb, B., and Robinson, T.E. (2005).

Neural and behavioral plasticity associated with the transition from controlled to

escalated cocaine use. Biol Psychiat *58*, 751-759. 10.1016/j.biopsych.2005.04.046.

Fukushima, K. (1980). Neocognitron - a Self-Organizing Neural Network Model for a

Mechanism of Pattern-Recognition Unaffected by Shift in Position. Biol Cybern *36*, 193-

202. Doi 10.1007/Bf00344251.

Guo, L.L., Xu, D., and Qiang, Z.P. (2016). Background Subtraction using Local SVD

Binary Pattern. Ieee Comput Soc Conf, 1159-1167. 10.1109/Cvprw.2016.148.

He, K.M., Zhang, X.Y., Ren, S.Q., and Sun, J. (2016). Deep Residual Learning for

Image Recognition. Proc Cvpr Ieee, 770-778. 10.1109/Cvpr.2016.90.

Hsu, A.I., and Yttri, E.A. (2021). B-SOiD, an open-source unsupervised algorithm for

identification and fast prediction of behaviors. Nature Communications *12*, 5188.

10.1038/s41467-021-25420-x.

Hu, Y.J., Wang, C.C., Yang, L.M., Pan, G., Liu, H., Yu, G.Q., and Ye, B. (2020). A

Neural Basis for Categorizing Sensory Stimuli to Enhance Decision Accuracy. Curr Biol

30, 4896-+. 10.1016/j.cub.2020.09.045.

Hwang, R.Y., Zhong, L.X., Xu, Y.F., Johnson, T., Zhang, F., Deisseroth, K., and Tracey,

W.D. (2007). Nociceptive neurons protect Drosophila larvae from parasitoid wasps. Curr

Biol *17*, 2105-2116. 10.1016/j.cub.2007.11.029.

Jovanic, T., Schneider-Mizell, C.M., Shao, M., Masson, J.B., Denisov, G., Fetter, R.D.,

Mensh, B.D., Truman, J.W., Cardona, A., and Zlatic, M. (2016). Competitive

Disinhibition Mediates Behavioral Choice and Sequences in Drosophila. Cell *167*, 858-

+. 10.1016/j.cell.2016.09.009.

Kabra, M., Robie, A.A., Rivera-Alba, M., Branson, S., and Branson, K. (2013). JAABA:

interactive machine learning for automatic annotation of animal behavior. Nat Methods

10, 64-U87. 10.1038/Nmeth.2281.

Klibaite, U., Berman, G.J., Cande, J., Stern, D.L., and Shaevitz, J.W. (2017). An

unsupervised method for quantifying the behavior of paired animals. Phys Biol *14*.

ARTN 015006

10.1088/1478-3975/aa5c50.

Klibaite, U., and Shaevitz, J.W. (2020). Paired fruit flies synchronize behavior:

Uncovering social interactions in Drosophila melanogaster. PLoS Comput Biol *16*,

e1008230. 10.1371/journal.pcbi.1008230.

Lahiri, S., Shen, K.L., Klein, M., Tang, A.J., Kane, E., Gershow, M., Garrity, P., and

Samuel, A.D.T. (2011). Two Alternating Motor Programs Drive Navigation in Drosophila

Larva. Plos One *6*. ARTN e23180

10.1371/journal.pone.0023180.

LeCun, Y., and Bengio, Y. (1995). Convolutional networks for images, speech, and time

series. The handbook of brain theory and neural networks *3361*, 1995.

LeCun, Y., Bengio, Y., and Hinton, G. (2015). Deep learning. Nature *521*, 436-444.

10.1038/nature14539.

Mathis, A., Mamidanna, P., Cury, K.M., Abe, T., Murthy, V.N., Mathis, M.W., and

Bethge, M. (2018). DeepLabCut: markerless pose estimation of user-defined body parts

with deep learning. Nature Neuroscience *21*, 1281-1289. 10.1038/s41593-018-0209-y.

Nilsson, S.R., Goodwin, N.L., Choong, J.J., Hwang, S., Wright, H.R., Norville, Z.C.,

Tong, X., Lin, D., Bentzley, B.S., and Eshel, N. (2020). Simple Behavioral Analysis

(SimBA)–an open source toolkit for computer classification of complex social behaviors

in experimental animals. BioRxiv.

Pearson, K. (1901). LIII. On lines and planes of closest fit to systems of points in space.

The London, Edinburgh, and Dublin philosophical magazine and journal of science *2*,

559-572.

Pereira, T.D., Aldarondo, D.E., Willmore, L., Kislin, M., Wang, S.S.H., Murthy, M., and

Shaevitz, J.W. (2019). Fast animal pose estimation using deep neural networks. Nat

Methods *16*, 117-125. 10.1038/s41592-018-0234-5.

Pereira, T.D., Shaevitz, J.W., and Murthy, M. (2020). Quantifying behavior to

understand the brain. Nat Neurosci *23*, 1537-1549. 10.1038/s41593-020-00734-z.

Roh, Y., Heo, G., and Whang, S.E. (2021). A Survey on Data Collection for Machine

Learning: A Big Data-AI Integration Perspective. Ieee T Knowl Data En *33*, 1328-1347.

10.1109/Tkde.2019.2946162.

Rumelhart, D.E., Hinton, G.E., and Williams, R.J. (1986). Learning Representations by

Back-Propagating Errors. Nature *323*, 533-536. DOI 10.1038/323533a0.

Schmidhuber, J. (2015). Deep learning in neural networks: An overview. Neural Networks *61*, 85-117. 10.1016/j.neunet.2014.09.003.

Segalin, C., Williams, J., Karigo, T., Hui, M., Zelikowsky, M., Sun, J.J., Perona, P., Anderson, D.J., and Kennedy, A. (2020). The Mouse Action Recognition System (MARS): a software pipeline for automated analysis of social behaviors in mice. BioRxiv.

Simonyan, K., and Zisserman, A. (2014). Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition. arXiv preprint arXiv:1409.1556.

Tracey, W.D., Wilson, R.I., Laurent, G., and Benzer, S. (2003). painless, a Drosophila gene essential for nociception. Cell *113*, 261-273. Doi 10.1016/S0092-8674(03)00272-1.

van der Maaten, L., and Hinton, G. (2008). Visualizing Data using t-SNE. J Mach Learn Res *9*, 2579-2605.

Wiltschko, A.B., Johnson, M.J., Iurilli, G., Peterson, R.E., Katon, J.M., Pashkovski, S.L., Abraira, V.E., Adams, R.P., and Datta, S.R. (2015). Mapping Sub-Second Structure in Mouse Behavior. Neuron *88*, 1121-1135. 10.1016/j.neuron.2015.11.031.

Wu, P., Chen, S., and Metaxas, D.N. (2020). Motionnet: Joint perception and motion prediction for autonomous driving based on bird's eye view maps. pp. 11385-11395.

Yosinski, J., Clune, J., Bengio, Y., and Lipson, H. (2014). How transferable are features in deep neural networks ? Adv Neur In *27*.

Zhang, W., Yan, Z.Q., Jan, L.Y., and Jan, Y.N. (2013). Sound response mediated by the TRP channels NOMPC, NANCHUNG, and INACTIVE in chordotonal organs of Drosophila larvae. P Natl Acad Sci USA *110*, 13612-13617. 10.1073/pnas.1312477110.

Figure 1. The pipeline of *LabGym*.

A. Irrelevant backgrounds are removed in each video frame and individual animals are tracked.

B. At each frame of the video, *LabGym* generates a pair of data for each animal, which

comprises a short animation spanning a user-defined time window and its paired pattern image

covering the overall pattern of the animal within the animation.

C. The Categorizer uses both the animations and pattern images to categorize behaviors during

the user-defined time window (i.e., the duration of the animation). The Categorizer comprises

three submodules, the 'Animation Analyzer', the 'Pattern Recognizer', and the 'Decision Maker'.

The Animation Analyzer analyzes all spatiotemporal details in the animation for each animal

whereas the Pattern Recognizer evaluates the overall movement patterns in the paired pattern

image. The Decision Maker integrates the outputs from both the Animation Analyzer and the

Pattern Recognizer to determine which behavioral category is present in the animation for each

animal.

D. The animations and pattern images can be exported to build benchmark datasets for training

the Categorizer.

E and **F**. After the behavioral categorizations, the quantification module ('Quantifier') uses

information from the behavioral categories and the animal foregrounds to compute specific

quantitative measurements for different aspects of each behavior.

Figure 2. *LabGym* removes backgrounds and accurately tracks multiple animals.

A. The stable value of each pixel is used to reconstruct the static background for a video.

B. Examples of video frames showing that animal foregrounds are clearly presented after

removing the static backgrounds that are constructed by our method of stable-value detection.

C. Examples of video frames showing that *LabGym* accurately track multiple animals performing

either non-interactive or social behavior. Left: non-interactive behavior, in which animal (larva)

contact is not allowed; right: social interaction in which two animals (adult flies) contact each

other.

Figure 3. Biological plausible design of the Categorizer.

A. The Animation Analyzer first uses time-distributed convolutional layers to compute all frame-
wise spatial details of an animation, and then uses recurrent layers (long short-term memory,
LSTM) to compute the temporal connectivity among the frame-wise spatial details.

B. The Pattern Recognizer uses convolutional layers to analyze the pattern image, which is

superimposed contours of animal body (and body parts) along the temporal sequence (indicated

by gradually changed color) during a behavior.

C. The Decision Maker uses concatenating layers to integrate the outputs from both the

Animation Analyzer and the Pattern Recognizer, and then passes the integrated information to

dense layers for concluding the behavioral categories.

Figure 4. *LabGym* generates stand-alone, visualizable behavioral datasets as

benchmarks.

A. Example frames of an animation (background is included) and its paired pattern image,

showing a mouse nest building behavior.

B. Example frames of animations and their paired pattern images (body parts are not included),

showing (from top to bottom) larva curling and uncoiling, fly abdomen bending (copulation

attempt) and wing extension (courtship song), and rat walking and rearing.

C. Example frames of animations and their paired pattern images (body parts are included),

showing (from top to bottom) mouse facial grooming, sniffing, ear grooming, and sitting.

Figure 5

A LarvaNociceptor_Topview_30fps (overall accuracy: 0.97)

Training example amount (in pairs) (Tr N): 492 457 500 413 329 308

B RatAddiction_Topview_30fps (overall accuracy: 0.90)

Tr N: 369 229 551 551 539 552 561 512

C MouseHomecage_Topview_30fps (overall accuracy: 0.96)

Tr N: 177 90 145 123 200 373 148 89 368 500 317 331 424 116 232 308 79 217 392 240

Figure 5. Accurate frame-wise categorizations on various user-defined behaviors by

different Categorizers.

A-C. Bars showing the in-practice test metrics (overall accuracy, precisions, recalls and f1

scores) of *LarvaN* (**A**), *RatA* (**B**) and *MouseH* (**C**). 7 videos for larvae (10 larvae per video), 10

videos for rats (1 rat per video), and 2 videos for mice (1 mouse per video) that were not used

for generating the training datasets were used to generate the testing data (animations and their

paired pattern images). 2162 pairs (for larvae), 4828 pairs (rats), and 12653 pairs (mice) of data

were randomly selected (data with obvious missing body parts were excluded) and then were

sorted by experimenters into different folders under the behavior names (building ground truth

testing datasets). The ground truth testing datasets were then used for testing the categorization

metrics of the 3 Categorizers. In this way, experimenters were blind to the predictions of the 3

Categorizers when sorting data to build the ground truth testing datasets and thus the tests

were unbiased.

Entire duration of analysis

Behavior A | Behavior B | Behavior C | Behavior D

t_w : time window for categorizing behaviors

A single occurrence of **B**

Count of **B** = 2 Latency of **B** = t_1 Duration of **B** = $t_2 + t_3$

Angle (single occurrence) = $\bar{\theta}_i$ (i in t_w) Speed = $(\Sigma d_i) / t_w$ (i in t_w)

Velocity (V) = max(dt) / t (t: time for the max displacement dt)

Acceleration = ($Vmax$- $Vmin$) / t_v (t_v: time for the change of V)

Distance = Σd_i (i in entire duration of analysis)

Intensity (a) (single occurrence) = $(\Sigma(\Delta a / a_i)) / t_w$ (i in t_w)

Intensity (l) (single occurrence) = $(\Sigma(\Delta l / l_i)) / t_w$ (i in t_w)

Magnitude (a) (single occurrence) = max($\Delta a / a_i$) (i in t_w)

Magnitude (l) (single occurrence) = max($\Delta l / l_i$) (i in t_w)

Vigor (a) (single occurrence) = Magnitude (a) / t_a

Vigor (l) (single occurrence) = Magnitude (l) / t_l

1   **Figure 6. The Quantifier analyzes diverse aspects of behavioral dynamics.**

2   A schematic that shows the process of frame-wise categorizations on behaviors, and how the

3   Quantifier uses the information of behavioral categories and animal foregrounds to calculate 14

4   behavioral parameters in the current version of *LabGym*.

Figure 7. The Quantifier captures subtle changes in the behaviors of *Drosophila* larvae.

A and **H**. Raster plots showing the frame-wise categorizations by: **A**. *LarvaN* on control (*w*; *LK*-

GAL4 / +; *TrpA1*-QF, QUAS-ChR2^{T159C}, UAS-jRCaMP1b / +) and LK neuron inhibition (*w*; *LK*-

GAL4 / +; *TrpA1*-QF, QUAS-ChR2^{T159C}, UAS-GtACR1 / +) groups after nociceptors were

optogenetically activated (blue dashed line indicates the stimulation onset); **H**.

LarvaMechanosensor_Topview_30fps on larvae (*Caton S*) under different intensities of sound

stimuli (black dashed line indicates the stimulation onset). Color bars: behavioral categories

(color intensities indicate the behavioral probabilities). X-axis represents the time and Y-axis

represents the larval IDs.

B-**G**. Parameters calculated by the Quantifier for different behaviors elicited by nociceptor

activation. The colors match those in **A**. Data in **F** and **G** are from the control group in **A**.

I-**N**. Parameters calculated by the Quantifier for different behaviors elicited by sound stimulation.

The colors match those in **H**.

Probability in **B** and **I** is the fraction of responders (behavioral count > 0) in total animals. n.s.,

P > 0.05; *, P < 0.05; ***, P < 0.001 (Fisher's exact test for **B** and **I**; unpaired t test for **C**-**G** and

J-**N**).

Figure 8. The Quantifier captures qualitative and quantitative changes in rodent

behaviors.

A. Raster plots showing the frame-wise categorizations by *RatA* of behavior after saline or

amphetamine injection. Plots at the left (baseline) show responses to the first exposure to

amphetamine across increasing doses; right (post treatment): repeated injections during a 21-

day sensitization phase and then tested with the 4-dose injections. The injection interval

between 4 doses (0.32, 1.0, 3.2, and 5.6 mg / kg for amphetamine) is 30 minutes. Color bars:

behavioral categories (intensities indicate the behavioral probabilities). X-axis: time (each tick is

10-sec); Y-axis: each row represents an individual rat.

B-D. The dose response curves of rearing intensity (**B**), locomotion counts (**C**) and head

movement duration (**D**) in initial drug exposure (baseline) in **A**. *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P <

0.001 (unpaired t test between saline and amphetamine groups).

E. The dose response curves of head movement duration in initial exposure (baseline) and

repeated exposure (post treatment, i.e., sensitization) of amphetamine or saline. *, P < 0.05; **,

P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001 (unpaired t test between baseline and post treatment groups).

F-H. the rearing intensity (**F**), locomotion distance (**G**) and the head movement duration (**H**) in

initial (baseline) / repeated exposure (post treatment) group to the same amphetamine dose

(0.32 mg / kg). *, P < 0.05 (paired t test).

I-K. The dose response curves of intensity and counts of body grooming (**I** and **J**) and the

duration of face grooming (**K**) in initial (baseline) / repeated exposure (post treatment) group

show no difference.

L. Raster plots showing the frame-wise categorizations by *MouseH* for a younger (32-week) or

an older (80-week) mouse. Color bars: behavioral categories (intensities indicate the behavioral

probabilities). X-axis: time (in second); Y-axis: different random 2-minute time window. Multiple

(>100) 2-minute time windows were randomly selected from a 4-hour recording for each mouse,

and those containing wheel-running behavior (targeted time window) were sorted out. 10

targeted time windows for each mouse were randomly selected for analysis.

M. The running vigor of the two mice in **L**. **, P < 0.01 (unpaired t test).